

University of Kansas, Lawrence, U.S.A.

### Abstract

The history and the major results of the study of the topology of the large-scale structure are briefly reviewed. Two techniques based on percolation theory and the genus curve are discussed. The preliminary results of the percolation analysis of the Wiener reconstruction of the IRAS 1.2Jy redshift catalog are reported.

## 1 Introduction

Looking at the large-scale distributions of galaxies, one may notice that along with clusters and groups of galaxies there are also conspicuously oblong concentrations of galaxies: filaments. One may also get an impression that filaments are connected to each other forming a single network spanning through the entire sample. The two-point correlation function (the most common way of describing the distribution of galaxies) obviously is not sensitive to the geometry and topology of the galaxy distribution. The three- and many- point correlation functions generally speaking are sensitive to the shapes and probably the topology but become cumbersome very quickly. Currently popular averaged moments are easy to interpret, but they loose sensitivity to the geometry after averaging over the volume [1]. There have been suggested various statistics to characterize the geometry and topology of the large-scale structure. In this talk I briefly review the studies of the topology of the large-scale galaxy distribution.

The first mention of topology in the context of the large-scale structure problem (I am familiar with) was in the 1970 paper by Doroshkevich [2]. Studying the formation of the large-scale structure in the pancake scenario Doroshkevich calculated the Euler characteristic of the isodensity surfaces of the initial *Gaussian* density field. Both the Euler characteristic and a common topological measure used in cosmology, genus, are determined by the mean Gaussian curvature of the surface of a constant density.

In 1982 Zel'dovich noticed that the percolation properties of the *nonlinear* density distribution in the HDM (Hot Dark Matter) model are very different from the initial Gaussian field. He also suggested characterizing the topology of the nonlinear density distribution by the percolation thresholds [3].

Percolation theory deals with the number and properties of the “clusters”, which are defined as connected regions bounded by the surfaces of a constant density. Following Zel’dovich’s idea the author of this talk suggested to use percolation properties of *the galaxy distribution* as an objective quantitative measure of the topology of the large-scale structure and also as a discriminator between cosmological models [4], [5].

The percolation technique was utilized in the study of the CfA I catalog [6]. It was found that the large-scale distribution of galaxies had a network structure. Theoretical studies of the models with the power law initial spectra showed that the  $n = -1$  model clearly percolated better than the  $n = 0$  model and also in the  $\Omega = 1$  universe the  $n = -1$  model was in an agreement with the observations [7]. The percolation method showed that the CDM (Cold Dark Matter) model appeared filamentary rather than hierarchical [8], [9]. It was also pointed out that the major disadvantage of percolation technique was the dependence of the percolation thresholds on the mean density of the sample [10] which made it difficult to apply to sparse samples. Similarly, we note that at present some believe that sparse samples can be reliably used for the estimation of the two-point correlation function only [11].

In 1986 Bardeen et al [12] and Gott, Melott and Dickinson rediscovered Doroshkevich’s idea of utilizing the Euler characteristic and expanded it to the *nonlinear* distributions as well as *galaxy* catalogs [13]. (Both percolation and genus techniques assumes some kind of smoothing when applied to galaxy distributions.) However, instead of the mean density of the Euler characteristic  $\chi$  used by Doroshkevich they introduced the mean density of genus,  $g$ , which is proportional to the Euler characteristic:  $g = -\chi/2$ . (For a general review of this method see e.g. [14].) Tomita [15] gave a very elegant analytic expression for the mean Euler characteristic for a D-dimensional Gaussian field which in three-dimensional space yields the familiar equation for the mean genus density

$$g = \frac{1}{4\pi^2} \left( \frac{\langle k^2 \rangle}{3} \right)^{3/2} (1 - \nu^2) \exp(-\nu^2/2), \quad (1)$$

where  $\nu = \delta/\sigma_\delta$  is the number of standard deviations by which the threshold density departs from the mean density,  $\delta \equiv (\rho - \bar{\rho})/\bar{\rho}$ ,  $\langle k^2 \rangle = \int k^2 P(k) d^3k / \int P(k) d^3k$ , and  $P(k)$  is the power spectrum (see e.g. [16]). In a Gaussian field the genus curve has a maximum at  $\nu = 0$  with the amplitude determined by the characteristic scale of the density field  $\langle k^2 \rangle$ . Since it

depends on the slope of the spectrum it is often used as a measure of the “effective” slope of the spectrum (see e.g. [17]); however, it is worth mentioning that  $\langle k^2 \rangle$  has a stronger dependence on the smoothing scale than on the spectral index. Therefore even weak nonlinearity on the smoothing scale may influence the estimate of the spectral index. The genus curve changes sign two times at  $\nu = \pm 1$  which signifies the qualitative change of the topology of the surface separating high ( $\delta > \delta_c$ ) and low ( $\delta < \delta_c$ ) density regions where  $\delta_c$  is a chosen density threshold. As suggested by Eq.1 there are only two types of qualitatively different topologies: 1) one phase percolates and the other does not (negative genus) and 2) both phases percolate (positive genus). In the range  $-1 < \nu < 1$  both phases percolate through the whole region and this is often referred to as sponge topology. At  $\nu < 1$  the low density regions do not percolate and at  $\nu > 1$  the high density regions do not percolate. The topology of the separating surfaces is obviously the same at  $\nu = \pm \nu_c$  as measured by Eq.1. But in cosmological literature it is labeled either as a meatball or bubble topology depending on whether the high or low density phase does not percolate. The network structure obviously has a sponge topology however the term emphasizes a geometrical aspect of a non-Gaussian density field: the high density regions at the percolation threshold occupy a smaller volume than that of a Gaussian field.

The change of the genus sign is believed to coincide with the percolation thresholds however there is no theorem proving that. Intuitively, it is plausible for distributions resulting from Gaussian fields due to gravitational instability if one believes in a common interpretation of the genus as the mean density of the number of holes minus the number of the isolated regions and that clusters with holes inside do not form. Under these conditions, we assume that percolation thresholds coincide with the changes of the genus sign at least approximately.

One advantage of the genus method is the existence of the analytic expression for Gaussian random fields (Eq.1). Recently there has also been an analytic expression obtained in the weakly nonlinear regime [18]. However, one should not forget that the mean genus is a statistical measure and therefore an estimate of errors is needed before it becomes meaningful. The errors for finite samples having finite resolution can be estimated only from numerical simulations. Percolation parameters are also calculated numerically, but if one can estimate the errors he almost certainly can estimate the mean with similar accuracy.

It has been claimed that the percolation thresholds are the most sensitive discriminators of the models [4]. The recent study of the CfA II catalog using the genus method [16] seems to support that suggestion. The authors reduced the information of the genus curve to three numbers one of which was the genus peak width  $W_\nu = \nu_+ - \nu_-$  where  $\nu_+$  and  $\nu_-$  are the levels at which the genus changes the sign. Fig. 12 through 14 in [16] clearly demonstrate that  $W_\nu$  has the highest discriminating power. However, we still believe that the percolation thresholds,  $\nu_+$  and  $\nu_-$ , should be interpreted separately because they carry independent information about the topology of the structure.

## 2 Largest “cluster” and largest “void”

Percolation theory deals with the number and properties of the “clusters”. In the absence of a better term we label as “clusters” the regions bounded by the surfaces of chosen constant density. In order to avoid confusion with clusters of galaxies, we will use quotation marks when talking about “clusters” with this non-astronomical meaning. The density threshold  $\delta_c$  separating high ( $\delta > \delta_c$ ) and low ( $\delta < \delta_c$ ) density regions is assumed to be a free parameter  $\delta_c > -1$ . Analyzing discrete distributions (e.g. galaxy distributions) we assume a smoothing procedure creating a continuous density distribution.

At every density threshold all “clusters” and “voids” are identified and various types of analysis can be performed [20]. However here we present only the results of the study of the largest “cluster” and the largest “void” as functions of a density threshold. (The largest “void” is defined as the largest “cluster” in the low density phase.) The full analysis will be presented elsewhere [21], [22]. The choice of the largest structure is determined by the fact that at the percolation threshold the largest structure become infinite which signifies the change of topology.

The density threshold is not a convenient parameter if linear (Gaussian) and nonlinear density distributions are to be compared. Instead we utilize the filling factor to parameterize the density threshold [19]. The filling factor is the fraction of the volume occupied by the given phase. In this case one can easily compare the properties of “clusters” with that of “voids” and also linear and nonlinear density distributions. It is similar to comparing different patterns provided that the same amount of paint was used to make each pattern. The filling factor as a function of the density threshold is

obviously the cumulative distribution function.

The largest “cluster” and “void” are measured as a fraction of the corresponding filling factor. Thus if the largest “cluster” is 0.9 at filling factor of 0.2 it means that the density is higher than the chosen threshold in 20% of the volume and almost all of that volume (90%) comprised of only one connected region.

The top two panels of Fig.1 show the largest “cluster” and the largest “void” for the density distributions obtained in the N-body simulation of the power law model with  $n = -1$  at two stages of evolution:  $\lambda_{nl} = 1/8$  and  $1/4L_{box}$ . The simulations have been done with  $128^3$  particles on the equivalent mesh [23] but for this analysis the mesh has been reduced to  $64^3$ . Error bars show  $1\sigma$  deviations from the mean obtained in four different realizations of the model.

The qualitative behavior of both of the largest structures is universal: at small filling factors the largest structure is negligible then at some filling factor it quickly grows and becomes the only significant structure in the corresponding phase. This is the percolation transition and also the indication of the change of topology. In Gaussian fields there is no statistical difference between “clusters” and “voids” and the transition happens at a filling factor of about 16% corresponding to  $\nu = \pm 1$ . However, a finite size of the sample as well as finite resolution biases the transition. In order to avoid these effects, we obtain the “Gaussian” distribution by mixing the phases of the Fourier transform of the nonlinear density distributions in question. This automatically includes all finite grid effects in the reference Gaussian field keeping the Fourier amplitudes exactly the same. This allows for the generation of as many Gaussian realizations with identical amplitudes as needed to estimate the dispersion. The Gaussian largest structure is shown as a dotted line in Fig.1 (hidden by the shade of the error bars) lying between the solid and dashed lines.

The major feature of the nonlinear distribution is that the largest “cluster” percolates easier and the largest “void” harder than in the Gaussian case. The significance of this conclusion for the largest cluster is at the many- $\sigma$  level (see Fig.1). Qualitatively this remains true for all models we have studied ( $n = 1, 0, -1, -2, -3$ , CDM, and C+HDM [20]), but quantitatively the transitions are different. The high density regions form a connected network spanning through the whole region when the filling factor is relatively small (smaller than in the Gaussian case) and therefore this transition can

be labeled as a shift toward the network structure. On the contrary the low density regions do not form a percolating void (remain isolated) even when the filling factor of the low density phase is greater than that in the Gaussian field. This type of transition can be labeled as a shift toward the bubble structure. The range of the sponge topology is typically (but not necessarily) increased compared to the Gaussian case. Thus the above changes also can be labeled as a shift to a sponge topology. However, the major point is not how to label a structure but rather to show that in a general case the two shifts are independent of each other and carry independent information about the structure. Therefore combining them into one parameter (like  $W_\nu = \nu_+ - \nu_-$  mentioned above) results in lost information.

At small filling factors the largest structure must be negligible in sufficiently large samples. The actual (finite) sizes of the largest structures can be used as an internal characteristic of the fairness of the sample.

In the past the percolation technique has been successfully applied to volume limited samples [6]. Analyzing the statistically homogeneous distributions is very easy and the largest structures clearly distinguish between the models [21]. However, the analysis is much more difficult if the distribution has a radial gradients, like the IRAS 1.2Jy redshift catalog.

### 3 The IRAS 1.2Jy catalog

We analyze the whole-sky galaxy distribution in real space reconstructed from the redshift IRAS 1.2Jy catalog using a Wiener filter and an expansion in spherical harmonics [24]. The Wiener filter effectively uses a variable window size which is about  $500\text{km/s}$  at  $2000\text{km/s}$  and increases to  $1800\text{km/s}$  at  $10000\text{km/s}$ . The resulting smoothed galaxy distribution is not statistically homogeneous. This is the major challenge for applying the percolation technique.

In order to test the effect of the reconstruction we generated two density distributions from the N-body simulation ( $n = -1$ ,  $k_{nl} = 8$ ): one with the Wiener filtering and the other without it. The percolation statistics of these distributions are shown in the middle and bottom panels of Fig.1. The panels on the left hand side show the largest structures in the reconstructed density field without the Wiener filter and on the right hand side with the Wiener filter applied. The panels in the middle row show the results for the sphere

Figure 1: The N-body simulations of the  $n = -1$  model. The top row show two stages of evolution  $\lambda_{nl} = 1/8$  and  $1/4L_{box}$  before reconstruction. The largest “cluster” (solid line) and largest “void” (dashed line) is shown as a function of filling factor; the Gaussian realization with the identical Fourier amplitudes is shown in between (shaded by the error bars). The middle and bottom panels are the reconstructions without the Wiener filter (on the left hand side) and with the Wiener filter (on the right hand side). Two different radii of the sphere has been used:  $R = 30$  and  $24$  mesh units.

Figure 2: The Wiener reconstruction of the IRAS  $1.2Jy$  redshift catalog in spherical harmonics. Solid lines show the largest “cluster” and dashed lines show the largest “void” at two values of  $\beta = \Omega^{0.6}/b$  and at two radii of the spherical region.

with the radius of  $30$  mesh units and the bottom panels show the results for smaller sphere with the radius of  $24$  mesh units.

The middle and bottom panels show only one realization which demonstrates a substantial change in the topological properties due to the reconstruction procedure. We plot here only one realization for better visual comparison with the data. Fig.2 shows the largest structures in the filtered galaxy distribution assuming two different  $\beta = \Omega^{0.6}/b$ . This preliminary result is in a very general agreement with the  $n = -1$  model. The models with  $\beta = 0.1$  and  $\beta = 1$  do not look much different. Unfortunately the method of estimating the dispersion described above does not work in the inhomogeneous case. We are working now on the improved version of estimating the dispersion.

The largest structures in the galaxy distribution are quite large at small filling factors:  $30 - 40\%$  of the corresponding filling factor. It may mean that the sample is not large enough for this kind of analysis.

## 4 Summary

The quantitative topology proved to be a useful technique for studying the large-scale structure in the universe. There have been suggested two different methods for quantitative characterization of the topology. One widely used method measures the mean density of genus of a constant density surface as

a function of the density threshold. It actually measures the mean Gaussian curvature of the surface. The other more geometrical method is based on percolation theory. Here the number and properties of the “clusters” are studied. In particular the volume of the largest “cluster” measured as a function of a density threshold plays an important role.

In general the questions addressed by the two methods are similar but not identical. In the case where the questions coincide the two approaches use different methods of solving them. In particular, they treat the boundaries differently and are probably affected differently by noise.

The genus curve method is more developed and has been applied to many catalogs of galaxies (both two-dimensional and redshift surveys). The major results indicate that non-Gaussian behavior has been detected in both types of the catalogs (see e.g. [25], [16], [17] and references therein). The characterization of the structure is somewhat conflicting. Almost all possible labels have been assigned to the galaxy distributions: meatball, sponge, network, bubble topology. However, it is likely that the structure seen in different catalogs looks different. The estimate of effective slope is in agreement with  $n = -1$  [17].

The percolation method has been tested in various theoretical models and developed to the level when it can be applied to the galaxy catalogs. For the first time we try to apply it to the magnitude limited sample and find the preliminary result encouraging.

I am grateful to Capp Yess and Karl Fisher for allowing me to report the preliminary results of a common unfinished work and Francis Bernardeau for useful discussions during the meeting. I acknowledge the AAS travel grant, NSF grant AST-9021414, and University of Kansas GRF-94 grant.

## References

- [1] Bernardeau, F., 1995, private communication
- [2] Doroshkevich A.G., 1970, *Astrophysics* , 6, 320
- [3] Zel'dovich Ya. B., 1982, *Soviet Astron. Lett.*, 8, 102
- [4] Shandarin S. F., 1983, *Soviet Astron. Lett.*, 9, 104
- [5] Shandarin S. F., Zel'dovich Ya. B. 1983, *Comments Astrophys.*, 10, 33

- [6] Einasto J., Klypin A.A., Saar E., Shandarin S.F. 1984 MNRAS , 206, 529
- [7] Bhavsar S.P., Barrow J.D. 1983, MNRAS , 205, 61p
- [8] Melott A.L., Einasto J., Saar E., Suisalu I., Klypin A.A., Shandarin S.F., 1983, *Phys. Rev. Lett.*, **51**, 935
- [9] Davis M., Efstathiou G., Frenk C., White S.D.M. 1985, ApJ , 292, 371
- [10] Dekel A., West M.J. 1985, ApJ , 288, 411
- [11] Bouchet F. 1995, talk at this meeting
- [12] Bardeen J.M., Bond J.R., Kaiser N., Szalay A.S., 1986 ApJ , 304, 15
- [13] Gott J.R., Melott A.L., Dickinson M. 1986, ApJ , 306, 341
- [14] Melott A.L. 1990, Physics Reports, **193**, 1
- [15] Tomita H. 1986, Prog. Theor. Phys. **76**, 952
- [16] Vogeley M.S., Park C., Geller M.J., Huchra J.P., Gott J.R. 1994, ApJ , 420, 525
- [17] Moore B., et al, 1992, MNRAS , 256, 477
- [18] Matsubara T., 1994, ApJ , 434, L43
- [19] de Lapparent V., Geller M., Huchra J.P. 1991, ApJ , 369, 273
- [20] Klypin A.A., Shandarin S.F. 1993, ApJ , 413, 48
- [21] Yess C., Shandarin S.F. 1995, in preparation
- [22] Yess C., Shandarin S.F., Fisher K. 1995, in preparation
- [23] Melott A.L., Shandarin S.F. 1993, ApJ , 410, 469
- [24] Lahav O., Fisher K., Hoffman Y., Scharf C.A., Zaroubi S. 1994, ApJ , 423, L93
- [25] Coles P., Moscardini L., Plionis M., Luchin F., Matarerese S., Messina A. 1993, MNRAS , 260, 572